

# Chapter 12

## Review on Complex Analysis I

Reading: Alfors [1]:

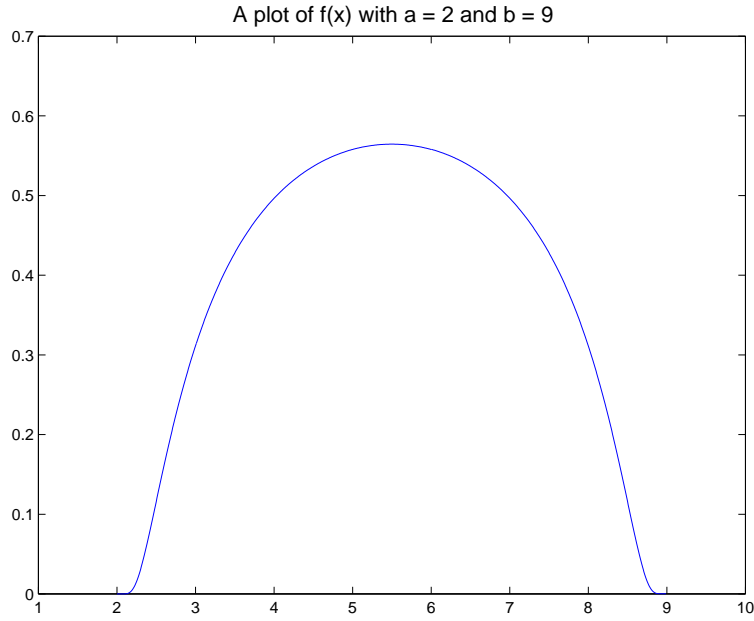
- Chapter 2, 2.4, 3.1-3.4
- Chapter 3, 2.2, 2.3
- Chapter 4, 3.2
- Chapter 5, 1.2

### 12.1 Cutoff Function

Last time we talked about cutoff function. Here is the way to construct one on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  [5].

**Proposition 12.1.1.** *Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two disjoint subsets in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $A$  compact and  $B$  closed. There exists a differentiable function  $\varphi$  which is identically 1 on  $A$  and identically 0 on  $B$*

*Proof.* We will complete the proof by constructing such a function.



Let  $0 < a < b$  and define a function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \exp\left(\frac{1}{x-b} - \frac{1}{x-a}\right) & \text{if } a < x < b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (12.1)$$

It is easy to check that  $f$  and the function

$$F(x) = \frac{\int_x^b f(t) dt}{\int_a^b f(t) dt} \quad (12.2)$$

are differentiable. Note that the function  $F$  has value 1 for  $x \leq a$  and 0 for  $x \geq b$ . Thus, the function

$$\psi(x_1, \dots, x_m) = F(x_1^2 + \dots + x_m^2) \quad (12.3)$$

is differentiable and has values 1 for  $x_1^2 + \dots + x_m^2 \leq a$  and 0 for  $x_1^2 + \dots + x_m^2 \geq b$ .

Let  $S$  and  $S'$  be two concentric spheres in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $S' \subset S$ . By using  $\psi$  and

linear transformation, we can construct a differentiable function that has value 1 in the interior of  $S'$  and value 0 outside  $S$ .

Now, since  $A$  is compact, we can find finitely many spheres  $S_i (1 \leq i \leq n)$  and the corresponding open balls  $V_i$  such that

$$A \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n V_i \quad (12.4)$$

and such that the closed balls  $\bar{V}_i$  do not intersect  $B$ .  $\square$

We can shrink each  $S_i$  to a concentric sphere  $S'_i$  such that the corresponding open balls  $V'_i$  still form a covering of  $A$ . Let  $\psi_i$  be a differentiable function on  $\mathbb{R}^m$  which is identically 1 on  $B'_i$  and identically 0 in the complement of  $V'_i$ , then the function

$$\varphi = 1 - (1 - \psi_1)(1 - \psi_2) \dots (1 - \psi_n) \quad (12.5)$$

is the desired cutoff function.

## 12.2 Power Series in Complex Plane

In this notes,  $z$  and  $a_i$ 's are complex numbers,  $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Definition 12.2.1.** *Any series in the form*

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n = a_0 + a_1 (z - z_0) + a_2 (z - z_0)^2 + \dots + a_n (z - z_0)^n + \dots \quad (12.6)$$

*is called* power series.

Without loss of generality, we can take  $z_0$  to be 0.

**Theorem 12.2.2.** *For every power series 12.6 there exists a number  $R$ ,  $0 \leq R \leq \infty$ , called the radius of convergence, with the following properties:*

1. The series converges absolutely for every  $z$  with  $|z| < R$ . If  $0 \leq \rho \leq R$  the convergence is uniform for  $|z| \leq \rho$ .
2. If  $|z| > R$  the terms of the series are unbounded, and the series is consequently divergent.
3. In  $|z| < R$  the sum of the series is an analytic function. The derivative can be obtained by termwise differentiation, and the derived series has the same radius of convergence.

*Proof.* The assertions in the theorem is true if we choose  $R$  according to the Hadamard's formula

$$\frac{1}{R} = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}. \quad (12.7)$$

The proof of the above formula, along with assertion (1) and (2), can be found in page 39 of Alfors.

For assertion (3), first I will prove that the derived series  $\sum_1^\infty n a_n z^{n-1}$  has the same radius of convergence. It suffices to show that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{n} = 1 \quad (12.8)$$

Let  $\sqrt[n]{n} = 1 + \delta_n$ . We want to show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \delta_n = 0$ . By the binomial theorem,

$$n = (1 + \delta_n)^n > 1 + \frac{1}{2}n(n-1)\delta_n^2 \quad (12.9)$$

which gives

$$\delta_n^2 < \frac{2}{n} \quad (12.10)$$

and thus

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \delta_n = 0 \quad (12.11)$$

Let us write

$$f(z) = \sum_0^\infty a_n z^n = s_n(z) + R_n(z) \quad (12.12)$$

where

$$s_n(z) = a_0 + a_1z + \dots + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} \quad (12.13)$$

is the partial sum of the series, and

$$R_n(z) = \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} a_k z^k \quad (12.14)$$

is the remainder of the series. Also let

$$f_1(z) = \sum_1^{\infty} n a_n z^{n-1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s'_n(z). \quad (12.15)$$

If we can show that  $f'(z) = f_1(z)$ , then we can prove that the sum of the series is an analytic function, and the derivative can be obtained by termwise differentiation.

Consider the identity

$$\frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} - f_1(z_0) = \left( \frac{s_n(z) - s_n(z_0)}{z - z_0} - s'_n(z_0) \right) + (s'_n(z_0) - f_1(z_0)) + \left( \frac{R_n(z) - R_n(z_0)}{z - z_0} \right) \quad (12.16)$$

and assume  $z \neq z_0$  and  $|z|, |z_0| < \rho < R$ . The last term can be rewritten as

$$\sum_{k=n}^{\infty} a_k (z^{k-1} + z^{k-2}z_0 + \dots + z z_0^{k-2}) = z_0^{k-1}, \quad (12.17)$$

and thus

$$\left| \frac{R_n(z) - R_n(z_0)}{z - z_0} \right| \leq \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} k |a_k| \rho^{k-1} \quad (12.18)$$

Since the left hand side of the inequality is a convergent sequence, we can find  $n_0$  such that for  $n \geq n_0$ ,

$$\left| \frac{R_n(z) - R_n(z_0)}{z - z_0} \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}. \quad (12.19)$$

From Eq. 12.15, we know that there is also an  $n_1$  such that for  $n \geq n_1$ ,

$$|s'_n(z_0) - f_1(z_0)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}. \quad (12.20)$$

Now if we choose  $n \geq n_0, n_1$ , from the definition of derivative we can find  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |z - z_0| < \delta$  implies

$$\left| \frac{s_n(z) - s_n(z_0)}{z - z_0} - s'_n(z_0) \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}. \quad (12.21)$$

Combining Eq. 12.19, 12.20 and 12.21, we have for  $0 < |z - z_0| < \delta$

$$\left| \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0} - f_1(z_0) \right| < \epsilon \quad (12.22)$$

Thus, we have proved that  $f'(z_0)$  exists and equals  $f_1(z_0)$ .  $\square$

## 12.3 Taylor Series

Note that we have proved that a power series with positive radius of convergence has derivatives of all orders. Explicitly,

$$f(z) = a_0 + a_1z + a_2z^2 + \dots \quad (12.23)$$

$$f'(z) = z_1 + 2a_2z + 3a_3z^2 + \dots \quad (12.24)$$

$$f''(z) = 2a_2 + 6a_3z + 12a_4z^2 + \dots \quad (12.25)$$

$$\vdots \quad (12.26)$$

$$f^{(k)}(z) = k!a_k + \frac{(k+1)!}{1!}a_{k+1}z + \frac{(k+2)!}{2!}a_{k+2}z^2 + \dots \quad (12.27)$$

Since  $a_k = f^{(k)}(0)/k!$ , we have the Taylor-Maclaurin series:

$$f(z) = f(0) + f'(0)z + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}z^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}z^n + \dots \quad (12.28)$$

Note that we have proved this only under the assumption that  $f(z)$  has a power series development. We did not prove that every analytic function has a Taylor development, but this is what we are going to state without proof. The proof can be found in Chapter 4, Sec. 3.1 of [1].

**Theorem 12.3.1.** *If  $f(z)$  is analytic in the region  $\Omega$ , containing  $z_0$ , then the representation*

$$f(z) = f(z_0) + f'(z_0)(z - z_0) + \frac{f''(z_0)}{2!}(z - z_0)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!}(z - z_0)^n + \dots \quad (12.29)$$

*is valid in the largest open disk of center  $z_0$  contained in  $\Omega$ .*

### 12.3.1 The Exponential Functions

We define the *exponential function* as the solution to the following differential equation:

$$f'(z) = f(z) \quad (12.30)$$

with the initial value  $f(0) = 1$ . The solution is denoted by  $e^z$  and is given by

$$e^z = 1 + \frac{z}{1!} + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{z^n}{n!} + \dots \quad (12.31)$$

Since  $R = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{n!}$ , we can prove that the above series converges if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{n!} = \infty \quad (12.32)$$

**Proposition 12.3.2.**

$$e^{a+b} = e^a e^b \quad (12.33)$$

*Proof.* Since  $D(e^z \cdot e^{c-z}) = e^z \cdot e^{c-z} + e^z \cdot (-e^{c-z}) = 0$ , we know that  $e^z \cdot e^{c-z}$  is a constant. The value can be found by putting  $z = 0$ , and thus  $e^z \cdot e^{c-z} = e^c$ . Putting  $z = a$  and  $c = a + b$ , we have the desired result.  $\square$

**Corollary 12.3.3.**  $e^z \cdot e^{-z} = 1$ , and thus  $e^z$  is never 0.

Moreover, if  $z = x + iy$ , we have

$$|e^{iy}|^2 = e^{iy} e^{-iy} = 1 \quad (12.34)$$

and

$$|e^{x+iy}| = |e^x|. \quad (12.35)$$

### 12.3.2 The Trigonometric Functions

We define

$$\cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2}, \quad \sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i} \quad (12.36)$$

In other words,

$$\cos z = 1 - \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^4}{4!} - \dots, \quad (12.37)$$

$$\sin z = z - \frac{z^3}{3!} + \frac{z^5}{5!} - \dots \quad (12.38)$$

From Eq. 12.36, we can obtain the Euler's equation,

$$e^{iz} = \cos z + i \sin z \quad (12.39)$$

and

$$\cos^2 z + \sin^2 z = 1 \quad (12.40)$$

From Eq. 12.39, we can directly find

$$D \cos z = -\sin z, \quad D \sin z = \cos z \quad (12.41)$$

and the additions formulas

$$\cos(a + b) = \cos a \cos b - \sin a \sin b \quad (12.42)$$

$$\sin(a + b) = \sin a \cos b + \cos a \sin b \quad (12.43)$$



### 12.3.3 The Logarithm

The logarithm function is the inverse of the exponential function. Therefore,  $z = \log w$  is a root of the equation  $e^z = w$ . Since  $e^z$  is never 0, we know that the number 0 has no logarithm. For  $w \neq 0$  the equation  $e^{x+iy} = w$  is equivalent to

$$e^x = |w|, \quad e^{iy} = \frac{w}{|w|} \quad (12.44)$$

The first equation has a unique solution  $x = \log|w|$ , the real logarithm of  $|w|$ . The second equation is a complex number of absolute value 1. Therefore, one of the solution is in the interval  $0 \leq y < 2\pi$ . Also, all  $y$  that differ from this solution by an integral multiple of  $2\pi$  satisfy the equation. Therefore, every complex number other than 0 has infinitely many logarithms which differ from each other by multiples of  $2\pi i$ .

If we denote  $\arg w$  to be the imaginary part of  $\log w$ , then it is interpreted as the angle, measured in radians, between the positive real axis and the half line from 0 through the point  $w$ . And thus we can write

$$\log w = \log |w| + i \arg w \quad (12.45)$$

The addition formulas of the exponential function implies that

$$\log(z_1 z_2) = \log z_1 + \log z_2 \quad (12.46)$$

$$\arg(z_1 z_2) = \arg z_1 + \arg z_2 \quad (12.47)$$

## 12.4 Analytic Functions in Regions

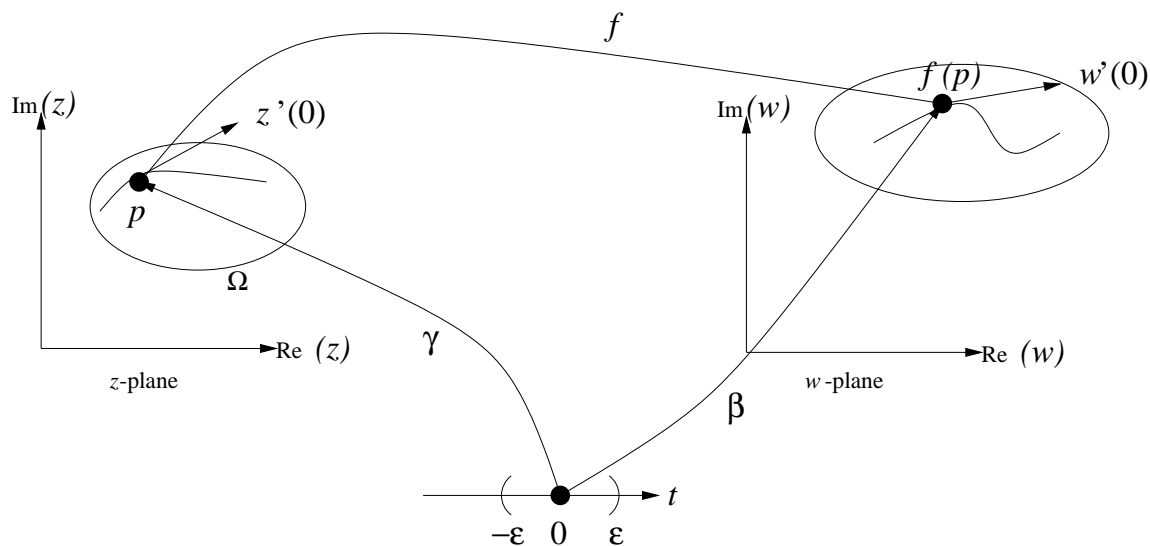
**Definition 12.4.1.** A function  $f(z)$  is analytic on an arbitrary point set  $A$  if it is the restriction to  $A$  of a function which is analytic in some open set containing  $A$ .

Although the definition of analytic functions requires them to be single-

valued, we can choose a definite region such that a multiple-valued function, such as  $z^{1/2}$ , is single-valued and analytic when restricted to the region. For example, for the function  $f(z) = z^{1/2}$ , we can choose the region  $\Omega$  to be the complement of the negative real axis. With this choice of  $\Omega$ , one and only one of the values of  $z^{1/2}$  has a positive real part, and thus  $f(z)$  is a single-valued function in  $\Omega$ . The proof of continuity and differentiability of  $f(z)$  is in [1] and thus omitted.

## 12.5 Conformal Mapping

Let  $\gamma$  be an arc with equation  $z = z(t), t \in [-\epsilon, \epsilon]$  contained in region  $\Omega$  with  $z(0) = p$ . Let  $f(z)$  be a continuous function on  $\Omega$ . The equation  $w = w(t) = f(z(t))$  defines an arc  $\beta$  in the  $w$ -plane which we call it the image of  $\gamma$ .



We can find  $w'(0)$  by

$$w'(0) = f'(p)z'(0). \quad (12.48)$$

The above equation implies that

$$\arg w'(0) = \arg f'(p) + \arg z'(0). \quad (12.49)$$

In words, it means that the angle between the directed tangents to  $\gamma$  at  $p$  and to  $\beta$  and  $f(p)$  is equal to  $\arg f'(p)$ , and thus independent of  $\gamma$ . Consequently, curves through  $p$  which are tangent to each other are mapped onto curves with a common tangent at  $f(p)$ . Moreover, two curves which form an angle at  $p$  are mapped upon curves forming the same angle. In view of this, we call the mapping  $f$  to be *conformal* at all points with  $f'(z) \neq 0$ .

## 12.6 Zeros of Analytic Function

The goal of this section is to show that the zeros of analytic functions are isolated.

**Proposition 12.6.1.** *If  $f$  is an analytic function on a region  $\Omega$  and it does not vanish identically in  $\Omega$ , then the zeros of  $f$  are isolated.*

*Proof.* Remember that we have assumed in 12.3 that every function  $f$  that is analytic in the region  $\Omega$  can be written as

$$f(z) = f(z_0) + f'(z_0)(z - z_0) + \frac{f''(z_0)}{2!}(z - z_0)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(z_0)}{n!}(z - z_0)^n + \dots \quad (12.50)$$

Let  $E_1$  be the set on which  $f(z)$  and all derivatives vanish at  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $E_2$  the set on which the function or one of the derivatives evaluated at  $z_0$  is different from zero. When  $f(z)$  and all derivatives vanish at  $z_0$ , then  $f(z) = 0$  inside the whole region  $\Omega$ . Thus,  $E_1$  is open.  $E_2$  is open because the function and all derivatives are continuous. Since  $\Omega$  is connected, we know that either  $E_1$  or  $E_2$  has to be empty. If  $E_2$  is empty, then the function is identically zero. If  $E_1$  is empty,  $f(z)$  can never vanish together with all its derivatives.

Assume now that  $f(z)$  is not identically zero, and  $f(z_0) = 0$ . Then there exists a first derivative  $f^{(h)}(z_0)$  that is not zero. We say that  $a$  is a zero of  $f$  of order  $h$ . Moreover, it is possible to write

$$f(z) = (z - z_0)^h f_h(z) \quad (12.51)$$

where  $f_h(z)$  is analytic and  $f_h(z_0) \neq 0$ .

Since  $f_h(z)$  is continuous,  $f_h(z) \neq 0$  in the neighbourhood of  $z_0$  and  $z = z_0$  is the unique zero of  $f(z)$  in the neighborhood of  $z_0$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 12.6.2.** *If  $f(z)$  and  $g(z)$  are analytic in  $\Omega$ , and if  $f(z) = g(z)$  on a set which has an accumulation point in  $\Omega$ , then  $f(z)$  is identically equal to  $g(z)$ .*

*Proof.* Consider the difference  $f(z) - g(z)$  and the result from Proposition 12.6.1.  $\square$